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IN LINEAR REGRESSION MODELS

BY

ALAN E. GELFAND

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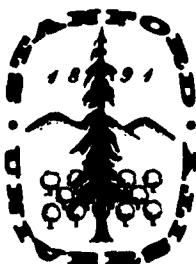
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MEAN SQUARE ERROR BEHAVIOR FOR PREDICTION  
IN LINEAR REGRESSION MODELS

Alan E. Gelfand

ABSTRACT

For the problem of individual prediction in linear regression models, that is, estimation of a linear combination of regression coefficients, mean square error behavior of a general class of adaptive predictors is examined. *jhd*

1. INTRODUCTION

Suppose the usual linear regression model with fixed regressors,  $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\beta + \epsilon$ ,  $\mathbf{Y}_{n \times 1}$ ,  $\mathbf{X}_{n \times p}$  full rank,  $\beta_{p \times 1}$  and  $\epsilon_{n \times 1} \sim (0, \sigma^2 I)$ . Let  $\hat{\beta}_{LS} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{Y}$  denote the ordinary least squares estimator of  $\beta$ . At a new vector of predictor values,  $\mathbf{x}_0$ , we seek to estimate  $\mathbf{x}_0^T \beta$ . Using mean square error as a criterion, results of Cohen (1965) show that if  $\epsilon$  is normally distributed,  $\alpha \mathbf{x}_0^T \hat{\beta}_{LS}$  is an admissible estimator of  $\mathbf{x}_0^T \beta$  for  $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$ , e.g., the UMVU predictor is admissible. In fact, a predictor of the form  $\mathbf{x}_0^T \mathbf{Y}$  is admissible for  $\mathbf{x}_0^T \beta$  iff  $(2\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{x}_0)^T (2\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{x}_0) \leq \mathbf{x}_0^T (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{x}_0$ .

In the sequel, we study the MSE under normality of predictors of the form  $\mathbf{x}_0^T \hat{\beta}_C$  where

$$\hat{\beta}_C = C \hat{\beta}_{LS} + (I - C)\beta^* \quad (1)$$

$C$  a matrix usually data dependent and  $\beta^*$  a specified vector. Such  $\hat{\beta}_C$  include most alternatives to  $\hat{\beta}_{LS}$  discussed in the literature. Earlier work in this direction appears in Baranchik (1964) and Radhakrishnan (1970).

## 2. NOTATION AND MOTIVATION

To simplify matters, we convert to canonical form. Let  $\hat{\alpha} = P\hat{\beta}_{LS}$ ,  $P$  orthogonal such that  $P(X^T X)^{-1} P^T = D^{-1}$ ,  $D$  diagonal with diagonal elements  $d_i$ . Define  $\alpha = P\beta$ ,  $\hat{\ell} = P\hat{X}_0$  and for convenience set  $\beta^* = 0$ . For the moment assume  $\sigma^2$  known. Our problem now is to estimate  $\epsilon = \hat{\ell}^T \alpha$  given  $\hat{\alpha} \sim N(\alpha, \sigma^2 D^{-1})$  wishing to do well near  $\epsilon = 0$ . Let  $U = \hat{\ell}^T \hat{\alpha}$ ,  $Z = \hat{\alpha}^T D \hat{\ell}$ ,  $q = \hat{\ell}^T D^{-1} \hat{\ell}$ ,  $V = Z - U^2/q$ ,  $\lambda = \hat{\alpha}^T D \hat{\ell}$  and  $\zeta = \lambda - \epsilon^2/q$ . Then,  $U$ ,  $V$  are independent,  $U \sim N(\epsilon, \sigma^2 q)$ ,  $V \sim \sigma^2 \chi_{p-1}^2 (\zeta/\sigma^2)$ .

Consider a general adaptive predictor  $\hat{\delta}(\hat{\alpha})$  of the form

$$\hat{\delta}(\hat{\alpha}) = \sum h_i(\hat{\alpha}) \hat{\ell}_i \hat{\alpha}_i. \quad (2)$$

Most predictors of  $\epsilon$  discussed in the literature are special cases of (2). Apart from the LS predictor,  $U$ , we have:

i) A class of predictors given in Thompson (1968)

$$T_m = \frac{U^2}{U^2 + m\sigma^2 q} U, \quad m \text{ a known constant, i.e., } h_i(\hat{\alpha}) = \frac{(\hat{\alpha}^T \hat{\ell}_i)^2}{(\hat{\alpha}^T \hat{\ell}_i)^2 + m\zeta^2 q}.$$

ii) A class of predictors given in Mehta and Srivastava (1971)

$$MS_{b_1, b_2} = (1 - b_1 e^{-b_2 U^2 / \sigma^2 q}) U, \quad 0 < b_1 < 1, \quad b_2 > 0, \quad b_1, b_2 \text{ known,}$$

$$\text{i.e., } h_i(\hat{\alpha}) = 1 - b_1 \exp(-b_2 (\hat{\alpha}^T \hat{\ell}_i)^2 / \sigma^2 q).$$

iii) A predictor arising from the James-Stein estimator adapted for unequal variances (Sclove 1968)

$$JS_c = (1 - \frac{c\sigma^2}{Z}) U, \quad c \text{ known usually taken equal to } p - 2.$$

A positive part adjustment should be applied so that  $h_i(\hat{\alpha}) = [1 - c\sigma^2 (\hat{\alpha}^T D \hat{\ell}_i)^{-1}]^+$ .

iv) Predictors arising from (simple) ridge estimators

$$R_{k_t} = \sum \ell_i \frac{d_i}{d_i + k_t} \hat{a}_i$$

where  $k_t$  is based on the data, i.e.,  $\hat{h}_i(\hat{a}) = d_i/(d_i + k_t(\hat{a}))$ .  
 $k$ 's discussed include:

$$k_1(\hat{a}) = \sigma^2 p (\hat{a}^T \hat{a})^{-1} \quad (\text{Hoerl, Kennard, and Baldwin 1975}),$$

$$k_2(\hat{a}) = \sigma^2 p Z^{-1} \quad (\text{Lawless and Wang 1976}),$$

$$k_3(\hat{a}), \text{ the solution to } \sum \hat{a}_i^2 d_i^2 (d_i + k_3)^{-2} = \hat{a}_i^2 - \sigma^2 \sum d_i^{-1} \\ (\text{McDonald and Galarneau 1975}),$$

$$k_4(\hat{a}), \text{ the solution to } \sum \hat{a}_i^2 d_i (d_i + k_4)^{-1} = \sigma^2 p$$

(the RIDGM estimator of Dempster, Schatzoff and Wermuth 1977).

A subclass of (2) which includes (i), (ii), (iii), and  $R_{k_2}$  has the form

$$\delta(\hat{a}) = \sum h_i(U, Z) \ell_i \hat{a}_i. \quad (3)$$

A further subclass which still includes (i), (ii), and (iii) is

$$\delta(\hat{a}) = h(U, Z) + U. \quad (4)$$

When  $D = I$ , all of the aforementioned estimators belong to (4).

Taking another point of view (see e.g. Thompson (1968)), if  $h_i$  in (3) is constant, the optimal  $h_i$  to minimize the MSE are easily obtained:

$$h_i^* = \frac{\epsilon}{\sigma^2 + \lambda \ell_i} \frac{\hat{a}_i}{\ell_i}. \quad (5)$$

An estimator of  $h_i^*$  would be of the form  $c_i(\hat{a}, \sigma^2)$  leading to a predictor belonging to (2). If (5) was estimated by  $c(U, Z, \sigma^2) + \hat{a}_i / \ell_i$  the class (4) results.

Suppose we take a Bayesian approach using a prior which centers  $\theta$  at 0, where we want to do well. More precisely, let  $Q$  be an orthogonal matrix such that  $QD^{\frac{1}{2}}\theta = (\frac{\theta}{n})$  where  $n$  is  $(p - 1) \times 1$  and  $n^T n = \phi$ . If we take as our prior

$$\left(\frac{\theta/\sqrt{q}}{n}\right) \sim N(0, \begin{pmatrix} \gamma & 0 \\ 0 & \rho\gamma I_{p-1} \end{pmatrix}), \rho \text{ known},$$

then under squared error loss, the Bayes estimate of  $\theta$  is  $(\gamma + \sigma^2)^{-1} \cdot \gamma U$ . Since  $(U, Z)$  is sufficient under the marginal distribution of  $\omega = QD^{-1}\alpha$  an "empirical Bayes" estimator of  $\theta$  takes the form in (4).

### 3. EXAMINATION OF THE MSE

We can calculate the MSE for the general predictor in (2) in terms of the  $h_i$ , assuming  $\sigma^2$  known.<sup>1</sup>

Theorem 1. If  $E\left|\frac{\partial h_i}{\partial U} \cdot \hat{\alpha}_i\right| < \infty$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, p$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{MSE}(\delta) &= c^2 q + E(\delta - U)^2 - 2c^2 E \sum_i \hat{\alpha}_i^2 (1 - h_i) \\ &\quad + 2c^2 q E \sum_i \hat{\alpha}_i \frac{\partial h_i}{\partial U}. \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

Proof. By direct calculation

$$\text{MSE}(\delta) = c^2 q + E(\delta - U)^2 - 2E\{r(\hat{\alpha})(U - \delta)\} \quad (7)$$

where  $r(\hat{\alpha}) = \sum_i (1 - h_i) \hat{\alpha}_i$ . Stein's identity (Stein 1981, p. 1148) converts the right-most term of (7) to  $\sigma^2 q E\left(\frac{\partial r(\hat{\alpha})}{\partial U}\right)$ . Simplification yields (6).

$\frac{\partial h_i}{\partial U}$  would be calculated using the transformation  $\hat{\alpha} = D^{-\frac{1}{2}} Q^T \alpha$  of the previous section. In the case of (3), it can be calculated directly writing  $h_i$  as a function of  $U$  and  $V$ . For predictors of the form (4),  $\text{MSE}(\delta)$  depends only on  $\theta$  and  $\phi$  and is given as

Corollary 1.

Corollary 1. For the predictors in (4), if  $E\left|U \frac{\partial h}{\partial U}\right| < \infty$

$$\text{MSE}(\delta) = c^2 q + E(1 - h)^2 U^2 + 2c^2 q E U \frac{\partial h}{\partial U} - 2c^2 q E(1 - h). \quad (8)$$

Under (4) choices of  $h$  in the literature are such that  $h$  is symmetric in  $U$  about 0 and restricted to  $[0, 1]$ . Using essentially

the argument of Efron and Morris (1976, p. 14) positive part restriction of  $h$  uniformly reduces risk. Restriction of  $h \leq 1$  is less clear. Taking  $h > 0$  the predictor  $h^* \cdot U$  where  $h^* = \min(h, 1)$  does not necessarily dominate  $h \cdot U$ . For example, let

$h(U, V) = \begin{cases} 1 + c, & a^2 < U^2 < b^2 \\ 1, & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$ . Then at each  $\theta$ , for  $|\theta|$  sufficiently large, MSE of  $h(U, V)U$  is less than MSE of  $h^*(U, V)U$ . Nonetheless, to improve in a neighborhood of a specified  $\theta_0$  requires convex combinations of  $U$  and  $\theta_0$ . Theorem 2 details MSE properties of predictors in (4) relative to the MSE of  $U$ .

Theorem 2. For  $\delta(\hat{\alpha})$  in (4) with  $h \in [0, 1]$ , let  $h$  be symmetric in  $U$  about 0. Let  $g = (1 - h)U$  with  $\limsup_{|U| \rightarrow \infty} g = 0$  and assume  $\frac{\partial g}{\partial U}$  exists for all  $U$ . Finally, assume that the Lebesgue measure of  $A = \{(U, V) : h(U, V) < 1\}$  is greater than 0. Then,

(i) For each  $\epsilon$  there is a neighborhood  $N_\epsilon$  of  $\theta = 0$  where  $MSE(\delta; \theta, \epsilon) < \sigma^2 q$ .

(ii)  $MSE(\delta; \theta, \epsilon)$  is bounded and  $\lim_{|\theta| \rightarrow \infty} MSE(\delta; \theta, \epsilon) = \sigma^2 q$ .

(iii)  $MSE(\delta; \theta, \epsilon)$  is symmetric in  $\theta$  about 0 and  $\left. \frac{\partial MSE(\delta; \theta, \epsilon)}{\partial \theta} \right|_{\theta=0} = 0$ .

(iv)  $g^2 - 2 \frac{\partial g}{\partial U}$  changes sign at least once in  $0 < U < \infty$ . If  $g^2 - 2 \frac{\partial g}{\partial U}$  changes sign  $b$  times in  $0 < U < \infty$ , then for fixed  $\epsilon$ ,  $MSE(\delta; \theta, \epsilon) - \sigma^2 q$  changes sign at most  $2b$  times.

Proof. The proof of (i) is clear since  $MSE(\delta; 0, \epsilon) < \sigma^2 q$ .

For (ii),

$$MSE(\delta; \theta, \epsilon) = \sigma^2 q + E g^2 - 2E(U - \theta)g. \quad (9)$$

Given  $\epsilon$ ,  $\exists u_0$  such that for all  $V$ ,  $U > u_0 \Rightarrow |g| < \epsilon$  and  $\exists \theta_0 > 0$  such that  $|\theta| > \theta_0 \Rightarrow P(|U| > u_0) > 1 - \epsilon$ . Then the second term and the third term (using the Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality) in (9) can be made arbitrarily small as  $|\theta| \rightarrow \infty$ . It is clear that the r.h.s. of (9) is bounded. (iii) is obvious. The first part of (iv) follows since  $U$  is admissible. The second part follows from

the sign change theorem of Karlin (1957) by noting that  
 $MSE(\delta; \theta, \phi) = \sigma^2 q = E(g^2) - 2 \frac{\partial g}{\partial U}$ .

Remark 1. Predictors in (i), (ii), (iii) of Section 2 satisfy the conditions of Theorem 2.

Remark 2. Result (ii) is a simple case of the "tail minimaxity" notion of Berger (1976).

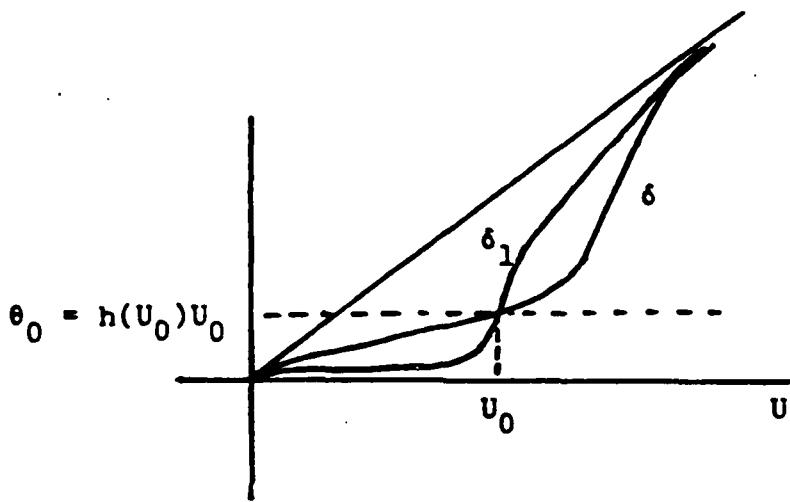
Remark 3. In (iii),  $\inf_{\theta} MSE(\delta; \theta, \phi)$  need not occur at  $\theta = 0$ . If, however,  $h(U, V)$  is increasing in  $|U|$  it must as may be shown by establishing the result for  $h$ , a step function in  $U$ . An induction argument proves this.

Remark 4. If  $b = 1$  in (iv), then a graph of  $MSE(\delta; \theta, \phi)$  for  $\theta \geq 0$  must start below  $c^2 q$  at  $\theta = 0$ , cross above  $c^2 q$  at some  $\theta$  and then asymptotically return to  $c^2 q$  from above. Any predictor satisfying the conditions of Theorem 2 must necessarily perform worse for a set of  $\theta$ 's near 0 than for a set arbitrarily far away.

Remark 5. No immediate extension of Theorem 2 to  $\delta(\alpha)$  as in (3) is available. For an arbitrary member of (3), MSE depends upon  $\theta$  and  $n$  and, even if each  $h_i$  meets the "tail minimaxity" condition, need not approach  $c^2 q$  as  $|\theta| \rightarrow \infty$  for fixed  $n$ .

Remark 6. Theorem 2 is readily extended to the comparison of any pair of predictors in (4).

We conclude with a comment on admissibility for the above predictors. Within the class of predictors based solely on  $U$ , i.e.,  $h(U)U$ , those meeting the conditions of Theorem 2 will either be admissible or if not then improvement cannot be substantial. We employ ideas of Chow and Hwang (1984). Suppose  $\delta_1(U)$  is to dominate  $\delta_0 = h(U)U$  meeting the conditions of Theorem 2. We can write  $\delta_1$  as  $h^*(U)U$ , and assume  $h^* \geq 0$ . For  $\delta_1$  to dominate  $\delta_0$  requires, when  $|U|$  is large, that generally  $h^*$  be closer to 1 than  $h$  and that, when  $|U|$  is small, generally  $h^*$  be closer to 0 than  $h$ . A simplified picture of  $\delta_0, \delta_1$  for  $U > 0$  might look like



But, at  $\epsilon = \epsilon_0$ , it would be almost impossible for  $\epsilon_1$  to dominate. Thus, the simplest  $h^*$  which realistically could dominate would have to have at least 3 sign changes for  $h - h^*$  on  $U > 0$ . For such an  $h^*$ , its form would be complicated, domination would be difficult to show, and improvement would be minimal.

This argument does not extend to the more general class (4). Though  $U$  and  $V$  are independent, conditioning on  $V$  in the above heuristic leads to  $\epsilon_0$  depending upon  $V$ . We, nonetheless, conjecture "approximate admissibility" for members of (4) meeting the conditions of Theorem 2.

#### FOOTNOTE

<sup>1</sup>When  $\sigma^2$  is unknown, we customarily assume an estimator  $S^2$  of  $\sigma^2$  such that  $vS^2 \sim c^2 \chi^2_v$  independent of  $\hat{\alpha}$ . In the foregoing predictors,  $\sigma^2$  is replaced by  $cS^2$ . As Lawless (1981, pp. 463-464) notes, when  $v \rightarrow \infty$  and even when  $v$  is moderate, resulting MSE will differ little from that with  $\sigma^2$  known.

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